LECTURE 3 : BASIS FUNCTION

- Motivation: Polynomial Functions and Basis Functions
- To model our data, in the previous discussion, we used polynomial functions:

$$\mathcal{Y}(x_n, \overline{\omega}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M} w_m x_n^m = \overline{w}^T \overline{x}_n$$

These functions are part of more general functions called Basis Functions.

Basis function models:

$$y(x_n, \overline{w}) = w_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} w_m \phi_m(x_n)$$

Defining
$$\phi_o(x_n) = 1$$
, we can write: $y(x_n, \overline{w}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} W_m \phi_m(x_n) = \overline{W}^T \overline{\phi}(x_n)$

where $\phi_m()$ is called a basis function

For polynomial functions:

$$\phi_{\rm m}(\chi_{\rm n}) = \chi^{\rm m}$$

The ferm Wells is not used since of is not a probability function.

Other basis functions:

Radial \leftarrow [0] Gaussian basis function: $\phi_m(x_n) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x_n - \mu_m)^2}{2s^2}\right)$

Basis **Functions**

[] Sigmoid basis function:

where
$$\sigma(a) = \sigma\left(\frac{x_n - \mu_m}{s}\right)$$

$$\frac{1 + \exp(-a)}{s}$$

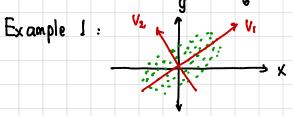
Questions

- Why do we need other types of 0 basis functions, and not just stick with polynomial functions?
- 2) How do the other basis functions work?

$$\mathcal{G}(x_0, \widetilde{w}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} W_m \phi_m (x_0)$$

The above definition means we can represent any function using $\phi_{\rm m}$, basis functions.

We can think basis functions as basic blocks, like lego blocks, where we use to represent any shape of objects.



We can consider \overline{V}_1 and \overline{V}_2 as the basis functions, because we can represent the location of the green dots with \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 : $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{b}\vec{v}_2$

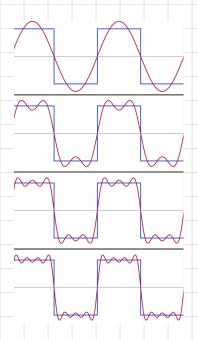
they are called principle components.

Example 2:

Fourier series: it can represent any periodic functions as the sum of sine or/and cosines.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} Q_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(nx)$$

$$=\frac{2}{11}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}\sin(nx)$$



Sec: () Wikipedia on Fourier series -> there is a nice demo of Fourier series as basis functions.

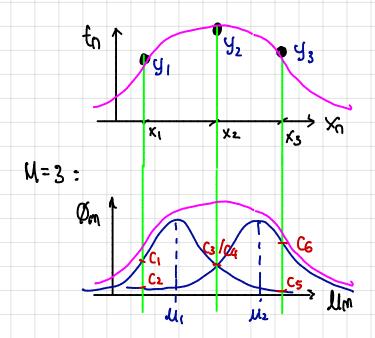
3 Spline functions: geometrie, foret nik net /files / NURBS-en. swf

$$\mathcal{Y}(x_n, \overline{w}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} w_m \phi_m(x_n) ;$$

Two important parameters: Un and S

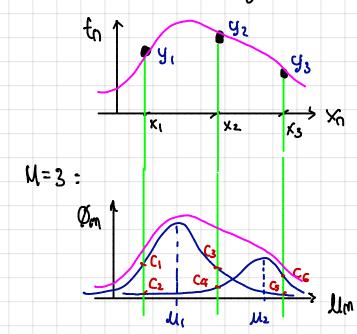
[Basic ideas:

1. Assume
$$M=3$$
 i $W_0=0$, $W_1=1$, $W_2=1$ and we have 3 points of data:



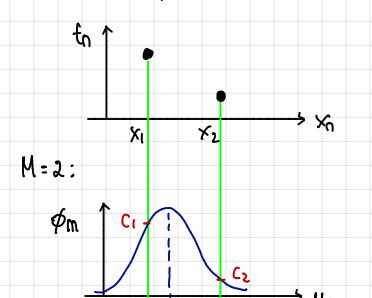
$$y(x_1, \overline{\omega}) = y_1 = \emptyset_1(x_1) + \emptyset_2(x_1)$$
 C_1
 C_2
 $y(x_2, \overline{\omega}) = y_2 = \emptyset_1(x_2) + \emptyset_2(x_2)$
 C_3
 C_4
 $y(x_3, \overline{\omega}) = y_3 = \emptyset_1(x_3) + \emptyset_2(x_3)$
 C_6
 C_6

2. For the above example, if we have $w_2 = 1/2$; it means the second Gaussian gets half smaller:



$$y(x_1, \bar{\omega}) = y_1 = \emptyset_1(x_1) + \emptyset_2(x_1)/2$$
 $y(x_2, \bar{\omega}) = y_2 = \emptyset_1(x_2) + \emptyset_2(x_2)/2$
 $y(x_3, \bar{\omega}) = y_3 = \emptyset_1(x_3) + \emptyset_2(x_3)/2$
 $y(x_3, \bar{\omega}) = y_3 = \emptyset_1(x_3) + \emptyset_2(x_3)/2$
 $y(x_3, \bar{\omega}) = y_3 = 0$

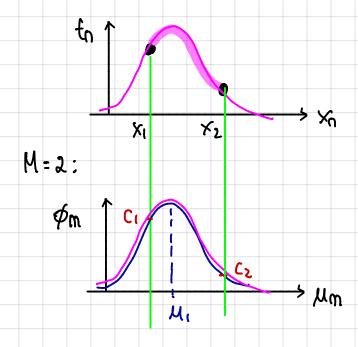
2. For 2 points of data:



We can obtain Wo & WI

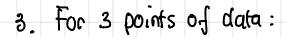
2 equations, 2 unknowns

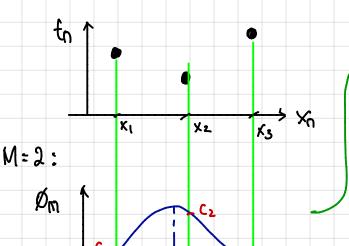
Once, we know $w_0 \& w_1$, we can apply the basis functions to all values of x_n . Assuming $w_0 = 0 \& w_1 = 1$, then:



$$y_1 = \phi_1(x_1)$$

$$y_2 = \phi_1(x_2)$$

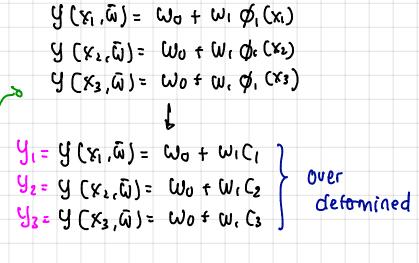


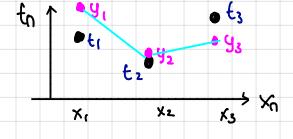


$$\begin{array}{lll}
y(x_1, \overline{\omega}) &= \omega_0 + \omega_1 & \emptyset_1(x_1) + \omega_2 & \emptyset_2(x_1) \\
y(x_2, \overline{\omega}) &= \omega_0 + \omega_1 & \emptyset_1(x_2) + \omega_2 & \emptyset_2(x_2) \\
y(x_3, \overline{\omega}) &= \omega_0 + \omega_1 & \emptyset_1(x_3) + \omega_2 & \emptyset_2(x_3)
\end{array}$$

These are non-linear functions For polynomials: $\phi_1(x) = x$; $\phi_2(x) = x^2$

The result of M=3 will fit more on the points.





Since the equations are over determined, once we obtained wo and wi, we can't produce exact values of ti, to &ts.

Q: Why polynomial function can be unstable numerically?

A: Imagine M = 51, where we need to estimate $W = (W_0, ..., W_{50})$ from the following set of equations:

$$\begin{array}{l}
y_{1} = \omega_{0} + \omega_{1} \times_{1} + \omega_{2} \times_{1}^{2} + \dots + \omega_{50} \times_{1}^{50} \\
y_{2} = \omega_{0} + \omega_{1} \times_{2} + \omega_{2} \times_{2}^{2} + \dots + \omega_{50} \times_{2}^{50} \\
\vdots \\
y_{N} = \omega_{0} + \omega_{1} \times_{N} + \omega_{2} \times_{N}^{2} + \dots + \omega_{50} \times_{N}^{50}
\end{array}$$

If any xi is large (xi=20), then xi is a huge number. Assuming the underlying curve is simple (e.g. quadratic), many w's (particularly those of higher degrees of polynomial) will be very-very small (very close to zero). These two factors of huge numbers of xi and w's can cause numerical problems in the implementation.

- Q: Any other advantages of using Radial Basis Functions Ce.g. Gaussian basis)?
- A: (1) It's easy to process a high dimensionality of \bar{x}_i (e.g. D) $y(\bar{x}_0, \bar{w}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} w_m \, p_m(\bar{x}_n)$ $y(\bar{x}_0, \bar{w}) = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} w_m \, p_m(\bar{x}_n)$

$$= \overset{\text{IXM}}{\nearrow} \overset{\text{DXI}}{\nearrow} \overset{\text{DXI}}{\longrightarrow} \overset{\text{IXM}}{\longrightarrow} \overset{\text{DXI}}{\nearrow} \overset{\text{DXI}}{\longrightarrow} \overset$$

(2) We can express \bar{X}_n using \bar{Q}_n , which implies that $\frac{Dx_1}{Mx_1}$ we transform \bar{X}_n using \bar{Q}_n in a such a way the dimensionality changes from Dx_1 to Mx_1 .

Assuming:
$$t_n = y(x_n, \overline{w}) + \varepsilon$$
; $\varepsilon = Gaussian noise$

$$p(t_n \mid x_n, \overline{w}, \beta) = G(t_n; y(x_n, \overline{w}), \beta)$$

Given input data $\overline{x} = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$ that are independent to each other, then:

The likelihood $\Rightarrow p(\overline{t} \mid \overline{x}, \overline{w}, \beta) = \prod_{n = 1}^{N} G(t_n; \overline{w}^{\dagger} \phi(x_n), \beta)$

Basic functions

If x_n is in \mathbb{R}^D , meaning x_n is a vector occupying a D dimensional space, then $x = \{\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2, ..., \overline{x}_N\}$. Consequently, the likelihood becomes:

$$p(\overline{t} \mid x, \overline{w}, \beta) = \prod_{n = 1}^{N} G(t_n; \overline{w}^{\dagger} \phi(x_n), \beta)$$

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Recall that MIE for the curve fitting is w_n in as:

$$\{\overline{w}, \beta\}^{*} = \underset{n = 1}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\overline{t} \mid x, \overline{w}, \beta)$$

$$\{\overline{w}^{\dagger} \{\beta\} = \underset{n = 1}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\overline{t} \mid x, \overline{w}, \beta)$$

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$$\{\overline{w}^{\dagger} \{\beta\} = \underset{n = 1}{\operatorname{argmax}} p$$

Read sections 3.1.1 and 3.12 of the textbook

→ This basis functions based equalion
is important to understand later hopics
such as Gaussian Processes and SVM.
(Later, it is known as kernel)